United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

EMBARGO
The contents of this Report must not be quoted or summarized in the press, on radio, or on television, before **16 October 2006 17:00 hours GMT**

World Investment Report 2006

FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: Implications for Development

Overview

United Nations

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

World Investment Report 2006

FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: Implications for Development

Overview

United Nations
New York and Geneva, 2006

Note

As the focal point in the United Nations system for investment and technology, and building on 30 years of experience in these areas, UNCTAD, through DITE, promotes understanding of key issues, particularly matters related to foreign direct investment and transfer of technology. DITE also assists developing countries in attracting and benefiting from FDI and in building their productive capacities and international competitiveness. The emphasis is on an integrated policy approach to investment, technological capacity building and enterprise development.

The terms country/economy as used in this Report also refer, as appropriate, to territories or areas. The designations employed and the presentation of the material do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. In addition, the designations of country groups are intended solely for statistical or analytical convenience and do not necessarily express a judgement about the stage of development reached by a particular country or area in the development process. The major country groupings used in this Report follow the classification of the United Nations Statistical Office. These are:

Developed countries: the countries members of the OECD (other than Mexico, the Republic of Korea and Turkey), plus the new European Union member countries which are not OECD members (Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Slovenia), plus Andorra, Israel, Liechtenstein, Monaco and San Marino.

Transition economies: South-East Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States.

Developing economies: in general all economies not specified above.

The reference to a company and its activities should not be construed as an endorsement by UNCTAD of the company or its activities.

The boundaries and names shown and designations used on the maps presented in this publication do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

The following symbols have been used in the tables:

Two dots (..) indicate that data are not available or are not separately reported. Rows in tables have been omitted in those cases where no data are available for any of the elements in the row.

A dash (-) indicates that the item is equal to zero or its value is negligible.

A blank in a table indicates that the item is not applicable, unless otherwise indicated.

A slash (/) between dates representing years, e.g., 1994/95, indicates a financial year.

Use of a hyphen (-) between dates representing years, *e.g.*, 1994-1995, signifies the full period involved, including the beginning and end years.

Reference to "dollars" ($) means United States dollars, unless otherwise indicated.

Annual rates of growth or change, unless otherwise stated, refer to annual compound rates.

Details and percentages in tables do not necessarily add to totals because of rounding.

The material contained in this study may be freely quoted with appropriate acknowledgement.

UNCTAD/WIR/2006 (Overview)

Visit the website of the *World Investment Reports* at *www.unctad.org/wir*

Acknowledgements

The *World Investment Report 2006* (*WIR06*) was prepared by a team led by Anne Miroux and comprising Kumi Endo, Torbjörn Fredriksson, Masataka Fujita, Masayo Ishikawa, Kálmán Kalotay, Joachim Karl, Dong Jae Lee, Guoyong Liang, Michael Lim, Padma Mallampally, Hafiz Mirza, Nicole Moussa, Abraham Negash, Hilary Nwokeabia, Shin Ohinata, Jean-François Outreville, Thomas Pollan and James Zhan.

Principal research assistance was provided by Mohamed Chiraz Baly, Bradley Boicourt, Jovan Licina, Lizanne Martinez and Tadelle Taye. Anne-Christine Charon, Michael Karschnia, Elodie Laurent and Arthur van de Kamp assisted as interns at various stages. The production of the *WIR06* was carried out by Severine Excoffier, Chantal Rakotondrainibe and Katia Vieu. *WIR06* was desktop published by Teresita Ventura. It was edited by Praveen Bhalla.

John H. Dunning was the senior economic adviser.

WIR06 benefited from inputs provided by participants in a Global Seminar in Geneva in May 2006, and three regional seminars on FDI from developing countries held in April 2006: one in Mexico City, Mexico (in cooperation with the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean and the Government of Mexico), the second in Chiang Mai, Thailand (in cooperation with the ASEAN Secretariat and the Government of Thailand), and the third in Johannesburg, South Africa (in cooperation with Reginald Rumney and the Edge Institute).

Inputs were also received from Emin Akçaoglu, Bekele Amare, Frank Bartels, Yannis Berthouzoz, Peter Buckley, Hamed El-Kady, Geoffrey Gachino, Celso Garrido, Stephen Gelb, Andrea Goldstein, Kathryn Gordon, Vishwas Govitrikar, Carrie Hall, Susan Hayter, Daisuke Hiratsuka, Veena Jha, Thomas Jost, Georg Kell, Kee Beom Kim, Ari Kokko, Julia Lewis, Mina Mashayekhi, John Mathews, Anthony Miller, Rekha Misra, Toh Mun Heng, Ramón Padilla, Pavida Pananond, Neil Patterson, Jenny Rydeman, Frans Paul van der Putten, Kee Hwee Wee, Sun Wenjie, Bing Xiang and Tham Siew Yean.

Comments were received during various stages of preparation from Carlos Arruda, Dilek Aykut, Rashmi Banga, Diana Barrowclough, Joseph Battat, David Benavides, Peter Brimble, Douglas Brooks, Gregorio Canales Ramirez, John Cassidy, Refik Culpan, John Daniels, Maria de los Angeles Pozas, Ping Deng, Diana Farrell, Axèle Giroud, Ulrich Grosch, Wuping Guo, Guner Gursoy, Sireen Hikmat, Gábor Hunya, Yao-Su Hu, Moses Iklara, Bharat Joshi, Anna Joubin Bret, Metin Kilci, Annamaria Kokeny Ivanics, Josephat Kweka, Seong-Bong Lee, Robert Lipsey, Kari Liuhto, Aimable Uwizeye Mapendano, Juan Carlos Moreno-Brid, Michael Mortimore, Peter Muchlinski, Sanusha Naidu, Kishore Nair, Rajneesh Narula, Abdoulaye Niang, Peter Nunnenkamp, Gerald Pachoud, Sheila Page, Fernando Porta, Marie-Estelle Rey, Reginald Rumney, Tagi Sagafi-Nejad, Mona Salim Bseiso, Yai Sriratana, Marjan Svetlicic, Mazen M. Tineh, Len Treviño, Judit Vadasz, Joerg Weber, Henry Yeung and Zbigniew Zimny.

Numerous officials of central banks, statistical offices, investment promotion and other government agencies, and officials of international organizations and non-governmental organizations, as well as executives of a number of companies, also contributed to *WIR06*, especially through the provision of data and other information. The *Report* also benefited from collaboration with Erasmus University, Rotterdam on the collection of data on, and analysis of, the largest TNCs.

The financial support of the Governments of Norway and Sweden is gratefully acknowledged.

Contents

Page

Overview 1

ANOTHER YEAR OF FDI GROWTH

Foreign direct investment in 2005 grew for the second consecutive year, and it was a worldwide phenomenon. 1

It was spurred by cross-border M&As, with increasing deals also undertaken by collective investment funds. 3

Most inflows went into services, but the sharpest rise in FDI was in natural resources. 5

There has been a significant increase in developing-country firms in the universe of transnational corporations. 5

Liberalization continues, but some protectionist tendencies are also emerging. 9

Africa attracted much higher levels of FDI. 11

South, East and South-East Asia is still the main magnet for inflows into developing countries 12

... while West Asia received an unprecedented level of inflows. 13

Latin America and the Caribbean continued to receive substantial FDI. 14

FDI flows to South-East Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States remained relatively high... 16

...while there was an upturn in FDI to developed countries. 16

Overall, FDI should continue to grow in the short term. 17

FDI FROM DEVELOPING AND TRANSITION ECONOMIES

Developing and transition economies have emerged as significant outward investors... 18

...generating considerable South-South investment flows. 20

New global and regional players are emerging, especially from Asia.... 22

...as developing-country TNCs respond to the threats and opportunities arising from globalization with their own distinctive competitive advantages. 23

Their outward expansion is driven by various factors 25

Page

...which, together with TNCs' motives and competitive advantages, result in most of their FDI being located in developing countries. 26

Increased competitiveness is one of the prime benefits that developing-country TNCs can derive from outward FDI 28

...while home countries can also benefit. 29

Developing host countries may also gain from the rise in South-South FDI. 31

The expansion of outward FDI from developing countries is paralleled by changing policies in home countries... 32

...various policy responses in host countries 34

...and it has implications also for the management of CSR issues... 35

...and for international rule making. 36

Annex

Table of contents of the *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: Implications for Development* 37

List of the *World Investment Reports* 39

Questionnaire 43

Figures

1. Global FDI flows, top 20 economies, 2004-2005 4
2. Cross-border M&As by sector, 2004-2005 6
3. Outward FDI flows from developing and transition economies, 1980-2005 19
4. Intra-regional and inter-regional FDI flows in developing countries excluding offshore financial centres, average 2002-2004 21

Tables

1. FDI flows, by region and selected countries, 1994-2005 2
2. Cross-border M&As by collective investment funds, 1987-2005 5
3. Selected indicators of FDI and international production, 1982-2005 7
4. The world's top 25 non-financial TNCs, ranked by foreign assets, 2004 8
5. The top 25 non-financial TNCs from developing economies, ranked by foreign assets, 2004 10
6. National regulatory changes, 1992-2005 11
7. Top 15 developing and transition economies in terms of stocks of outward FDI, 2005 20

World Investment Report 2006

FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: Implications for Development

Overview

ANOTHER YEAR OF FDI GROWTH

Foreign direct investment in 2005 grew for the second consecutive year, and it was a worldwide phenomenon.

Inflows of foreign direct investment (FDI) were substantial in 2005. They rose by 29% – to reach $916 billion – having already increased by 27% in 2004. Inward FDI grew in all the main subregions, in some to unprecedented levels, and in 126 out of the 200 economies covered by UNCTAD. Nevertheless, world inflows remained far below the 2000 peak of $1.4 trillion. Similar to trends in the late 1990s, the recent upsurge in FDI reflects a greater level of cross-border mergers and acquisitions (M&As), especially among developed countries. It also reflects higher growth rates in some developed countries as well as strong economic performance in many developing and transition economies.[1]

Inflows to developed countries in 2005 amounted to $542 billion, an increase of 37% over 2004 (table 1), while to developing countries they rose to the highest level ever recorded – $334 billion. In percentage terms, the share of developed countries increased somewhat, to 59% of global inward FDI. The share of developing countries was 36% and that of South-East Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) was about 4%.

The United Kingdom saw its inward FDI surge by $108 billion to reach a total of $165 billion, making it the largest recipient in 2005. Despite a decline in the level of inward FDI, the United States was the second largest recipient. Among developing economies, the list of the largest recipients compared with previous years remained stable, with China and Hong Kong (China) at the top, followed by Singapore, Mexico and Brazil. Regionally, the 25-member European Union (EU) was the favourite destination, with inflows of $422 billion, or almost half of the world total. South, East and South-East Asia received $165 billion, or about a fifth of that total, with the East Asian

[1] Transition economies refer to all the countries of South-East Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States.

Table 1. FDI flows, by region and selected countries, 1994-2005
(Billions of dollars and per cent)

Region/country	FDI inflows							FDI outflows						
	1984-1989 annual average	1990	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	1984-1989 annual average	1990	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Developed economies	77.9	1 130.7	690.3	347.2	398.5	386.1	540.5	486.6	1 087.5	684.8	681.7	514.5	695.3	540.2
Europe	29.4	221.6	390.1	314.2	271.1	251.7	433.6	106.5	871.4	474.0	281.7	317.0	358.0	474.8
European Union	27.0	696.1	382.6	307.1	253.5	233.7	421.9	104.2	873.1	439.4	264.8	289.1	334.9	554.6
Japan	3.4	8.3	6.3	9.2	6.1	7.8	2.8	22.8	31.6	28.3	32.3	28.8	31.0	45.9
United States	19.9	314.0	159.5	74.5	53.1	122.4	99.4	114.1	183.6	124.9	134.9	128.4	122.4	72.7
Other developed countries	25.1	80.7	40.4	43.4	25.0	48.3	6.5	22.9	51.9	47.5	38.2	39.7	64.9	5.7
Developing economies	108.4	266.8	221.2	163.6	175.1	275.0	334.3	64.6	143.6	76.7	49.7	35.6	112.8	177.5
Africa	8.3	9.8	19.9	13.0	18.8	17.2	30.7	3.5	1.5	2.1	0.3	1.3	1.9	4.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	45.2	109.0	89.3	34....	46.1	100.5	101.7	18.3	20.0	32.0	14.7	15.4	27.5	32.6
Asia and Oceania	30.9	148.1	112.7	96.2	110.1	157.1	200.0	43.9	122.2	42.6	34.7	19.0	83.4	140.8
Asia	30.4	146.0	112.0	96.1	110.1	156.8	199.6	43.5	122.2	42.1	34.7	19.0	83.4	140.8
West Asia	3.1	3.5	7.2	6.6	12.3	18.6	34.5	0.8	1.6	1.2	0.8	2.2	7.4	15.9
East Asia	18.5	116.3	78.8	65.4	72.2	105.1	118.2	38.3	72.0	26.1	27.6	13.8	59.2	94.3
China	4.0	4.0	46.9	52.7	53.5	60.6	72.4	3.2	0.9	6.9	2.5	0.9	1.8	11.3
South Asia	2.4	4.7	6.4	7.6	5.7	7.5	9.8	0.1	0.5	1.4	1.7	1.4	2.1	2.5
South-East Asia	7.4	23.3	19.6	15.8	19.9	25.7	37.1	10.3	8.2	10.8	4.6	1.4	14.7	12.0
Oceania	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
South-East Europe and the CIS	7.8	9.1	11.0	12.9	24.2	39.6	39.7	1.6	3.2	0.7	4.7	10.7	1.0	15.1
South-East Europe	2.2	3.6	4.2	3.9	8.5	13.4	12.4	0.1		0.1	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.8
CIS	5.6	5.4	7.1	9.0	15.7	26.3	27.2	1.5	3.2	0.6	4.1	10.6	0.8	14.6
World	548.7	1 409.6	832.2	617.7	557.9	710.8	916.3	553.1	1 244.9	764.2	539.5	561.7	811.1	778.7
Memorandum: percentage share in world FDI flows														
Developed economies	68.2	80.4	72.0	71.4	64.3	55.7	59.2	88.0	88.2	89.5	89.9	81.7	84.4	83.0
Developing economies	20.4	18.9	26.9	26.5	31.4	38.7	36.5	11.7	11.5	10.0	9.2	6.3	13.9	13.1
South-East Europe and the CIS	1.4	0.6	1.4	2.1	4.3	5.6	4.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.9	1.9	0.1	1.9

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, annex table B.1 and FDI/TNC database (www.unctad.org/fdistatistics).

subregion accounting for about three quarters of the regional share. North America came next with $133 billion, and South and Central America followed with $65 billion. West Asia experienced the highest inward FDI growth rate, of 85%, amounting to $34 billion. Africa received $31 billion, the largest ever FDI inflow to that region.

Global FDI outflows amounted to $779 billion (a different amount from that estimated for FDI inflows due to differences in data reporting and collecting methods of countries). Developed countries remain the leading sources of such outflows. In 2005, the Netherlands reported outflows of $119 billion, followed by France and the United Kingdom. However, there were significant increases in outward investment by developing economies, led by Hong Kong (China) with $33 billion (figure 1). Indeed, the role of developing and transition economies as sources of FDI is increasing. Negligible or small until the mid-1980s, outflows from these economies totalled $133 billion last year, corresponding to some 17% of the world total. The implications of this trend are explored in detail in Part Two of this Report.

It was spurred by cross-border M&As, with increasing deals also undertaken by collective investment funds.

Cross-border M&As, especially those involving companies in developed countries, have spurred the recent increases in FDI. The value of cross-border M&As rose by 88% over 2004, to $716 billion, and the number of deals rose by 20%, to 6,134. These levels are close to those achieved in the first year of the cross-border M&A boom of 1999-2001. The recent surge in M&A activity includes several major transactions, partly fuelled by the recovery of stock markets in 2005. There were 141 mega deals valued at more than $1 billion – close to the peak of 2000, when 175 such deals were observed. The value of mega deals was $454 billion in 2005 – more than twice the 2004 level and accounting for 63% of the total value of global cross-border M&As.

A new feature of the recent M&A boom is increasing investment by collective investment funds, mainly private equity and related funds. A number of factors, including historically low interest rates and increasing financial integration, have led private equity firms to undertake direct investments abroad, which are estimated to have reached $135 billion in 2005 and accounted for 19% of total cross-border M&As (table 2). Unlike other kinds of FDI, private equity firms tend not to undertake long-term investment, and exit their positions with a time horizon of 5 to 10 years (or an average of 5-6 years), long enough not to be regarded as typical portfolio investors. Thus host countries, and developing ones in particular, need to be aware of this difference in time horizon. At the same time, foreign ownership can bring market access and new technologies, and private equity

Figure 1. Global FDI flows, top 20 economies, 2004-2005[a]
(Billions of dollars)

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, annex table B.1 and FDI/TNC database (www.unctad.org/fdistatistics).

[a] Ranked on the basis of the magnitude of 2005 FDI flows.

Table 2. Cross-border M&As by collective investment funds, 1987-2005
(Number of deals and value)

Year	Number of deals: Number	Number of deals: Share in total (%)	Value: $ billion	Value: Share in total (%)
1987	43	5.0	4.6	6.1
1988	59	4.0	5.2	4.5
1989	105	4.8	8.2	5.9
1990	149	6.0	22.1	14.7
1991	225	7.9	10.7	13.2
1992	240	8.8	16.8	21.3
1993	253	8.9	11.7	14.1
1994	330	9.4	12.2	9.6
1995	362	8.5	13.9	7.5
1996	390	8.5	32.4	14.3
1997	415	8.3	37.0	12.1
1998	393	7.0	46.9	8.8
1999	567	8.1	52.7	6.9
2000	636	8.1	58.1	5.1
2001	545	9.0	71.4	12.0
2002	478	10.6	43.8	11.8
2003	649	14.2	52.5	17.7
2004	771	15.1	77.4	20.3
2005	889	14.5	134.6	18.8

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, table I.6.

investment can help host-country enterprises at a critical juncture to move to a new phase of development.

Most inflows went into services, but the sharpest rise in FDI was in natural resources.

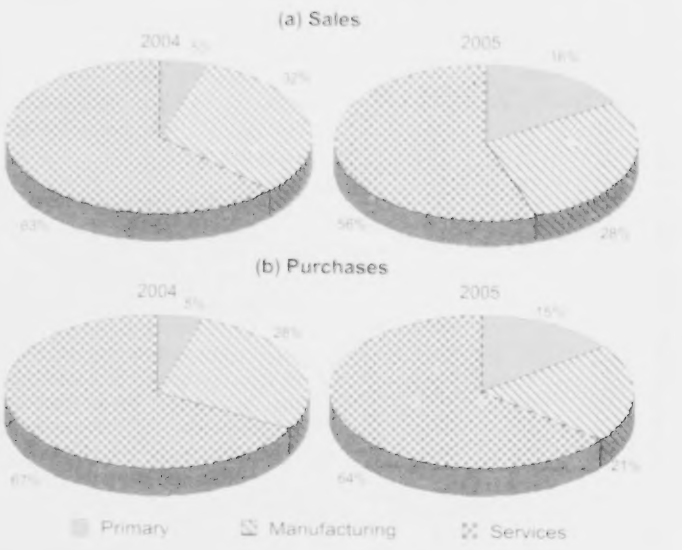
Services gained the most from the surge of FDI, particularly finance, telecommunications and real estate. (Since data on the sectoral distribution of FDI are limited, these observations are extrapolated from data relating to cross-border M&As, which accounted for a significant share of inflows.) The predominance of services in cross-border investments is not new. What *is* new is the further and sharp decline in the share of manufacturing (four percentage points lower in cross-border M&A sales over the preceding year) and the steep rise of FDI into the primary sector (with a sixfold increase in cross-border M&A sales), primarily the petroleum industry (figure 2).

There has been a significant increase in developing-country firms in the universe of transnational corporations.

Transnational corporations (TNCs), most of them privately owned, undertake FDI. However, in some home countries (notably in the developing world) and in some industries (especially those related to natural resources) a number of major State-owned enterprises are also increasingly expanding abroad. According to estimates by UNCTAD, the universe of TNCs now spans some 77,000 parent companies with over 770,000 foreign affiliates. In 2005, these foreign affiliates generated an estimated $4.5 trillion in value added, employed some 62 million workers and exported goods and services valued at more than $4 trillion (table 3).

The TNC universe continues to be dominated by firms from the Triad – the EU, Japan and the United States – home to 85 of the world's top 100 TNCs in 2004 (table 4 for the top 25 TNCs). Five countries (France, Germany,

Figure 2. Cross-border M&As by sector, 2004-2005



Source: UNCTAD, World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies, figure I.4.

Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States) accounted for 73 of the top 100 firms, while 53 were from the EU. Heading the list of the global top 100 non-financial TNCs are General Electric, Vodafone and Ford, which together account for nearly 19% of the total assets of these 100 companies. The automobile industry dominates the list, followed by pharmaceuticals and telecommunications.

However, firms from other countries are advancing internationally. Total sales of TNCs from developing countries reached an estimated $1.9 trillion in 2005 and they employed some 6 million workers. In 2004, there were five companies from developing economies in the list of the top 100 TNCs, all with headquarters in Asia, three of them State-owned. These five companies – Hutchison Whampoa (Hong Kong, China), Petronas (Malaysia), Singtel (Singapore) Samsung Electronics (the Republic of Korea) and CITIC Group (China) – topped the list of the largest 100 TNCs from

Table 3. Selected indicators of FDI and international production, 1982-2005
(Billions of dollars and per cent)

Item	Value at current prices (Billions of dollars)				Annual growth rate (Per cent)						
	1982	1990	2004	2005	1986-1990	1991-1995	1996-2000	2002	2003	2004	2005
FDI inflows	59	202	711	916	21.7	21.8	40.0	-25.4	-9.7	27.4	28.9
FDI outflows	28	230	813	779	24.6	17.1	36.5	-29.4	4.0	44.9	-4.2
FDI inward stock	647	1 789	9 545	10 130	16.8	9.3	17.3	9.7	20.8	16.1	6.1
FDI outward stock	600	1 791	10 325	10 672	18.0	10.7	18.9	9.6	17.7	14.1	3.4
Income on inward direct investment	47	76	562	558	10.4	30.9	17.4	10.8	37.0	32.3	-0.7
Income on inward direct investment	47	120	607	644	18.7	18.1	12.7	6.3	37.0	26.6	6.1
Cross border M&As [a]		151	381	716	25.9[b]	24.0	51.5	37.7	19.7	28.2	88.2
Sales of foreign affiliates	2 620	6 045	20 986	22 171	19.7	8.9	10.1	11.2	30.4	11.4	5.6
Gross product of foreign affiliates	646	1 481	4 283	4 517	17.4	6.9	8.8	1.9	20.3	22.8	5.4
Total assets of foreign affiliates	2 108	5 956	42 807	45 564	18.1	13.8	21.0	36.7	27.9	3.5	6.4
Export of foreign affiliates	647	1 366	3 733	4 214	14.3	8.4	4.8	4.9	16.5	21.0	12.9
Employment of foreign affiliates (thousands)	19 537	24 551	59 458	62 095	5.4	3.2	11.0	10.0	0.5	20.1	4.4
GDP (in current prices)	10 899	21 898	40 960	44 674	11.1	5.9	1.3	3.9	12.1	12.1	9.1
Gross fixed capital formation	2 397	4 925	8 700	9 420	12.7	5.6	1.1	0.4	12.4	15.5	8.3
Royalties and licences fees receipts	9	30	111	91	21.2	14.3	7.8	7.9	14.1	17.0	17.9
Export of goods and non-factor services	2 247	4 261	11 196	12 641	12.7	8.7	3.6	4.9	16.5	21.0	12.9

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, table I.2.

[a] Data are only available from 1987 onward.
[b] 1987-1990 only.

Table 4. The world's top 25 non-financial TNCs, ranked by foreign assets, 2004
(Millions of dollars and number of employees)

Ranking by						Assets		Sales		Employment		TNI[1]	No. of affiliates		
Foreign assets	TNI[1]	TNI[2]	Corporation	Home economy	Industry	Foreign	Total	Foreign	Total	Foreign	Total	(Per cent)	Foreign	Total	R
1	68	31	General Electric	United States	Electronic & electrical equipment	448 401	750 320	96 836	152 866	164 000	307 000	47.8	1 141	1 157	98.6
2	4	91	Vodafone Group Plc	United Kingdom	Telecommunications	247 830	258 976	25 065	62 848	46 861	61 516	83.1	70	198	35.4
3	87	100	Ford Motor	United States	Motor vehicles	179 858	305 781	71 344	171 932	233 184	324 839	46.7	130	214	60.7
4	90	71	General Motor	United States	Motor vehicles	173 690	479 892	58 100	193 517	214 917	324 000	34.7	169	249	67.9
5	10	44	Royal Dutch/Shell Group Company Plc	United Kingdom	Petroleum exp./ref./distr.	104 513	181 913	232 384	281 552	85 000	115 961	60.5	442	622	71.1
6	28	37	Exxonmobil	United States	Petroleum exp./ref./distr.	104 423	195 256	202 470	291 020	53 000	110 000	42.2	237	709	33.4
7	27	94	Royal Dutch/Shell Group	United Kingdom/ Netherlands	Petroleum exp./ref./distr.	103 536	140 417	202 280	265 190	96 000	114 000	83	338	614	55.0
8	62	87	Toyota Motor Corp.	Japan	Motor vehicles	100 867	232 791	102 995	171 905	94 666	265 703	49.6	126	181	69.6
9	29	48	Total	France	Petroleum exp./ref./distr.	98 779	114 436	102 200	132 060	42 233	111 401	59.7	479	778	61.6
10	66	47	France Telecom	France	Telecommunications	80 665	131 204	28 292	58 558	84 913	208 054	49	183	637	28.7
11	69	83	Volkswagen	Germany	Motor vehicles	80 182	172 348	86 237	176 443	166 702	345 000	59.6	91	158	57.6
12	16	75	Sanofi-Aventis	France	Pharmaceuticals	80 072	104 048	19 419	28 419	68 779	80 836	77.6	273	513	53.2
13	61	54	Deutsche Telekom AG	Germany	Telecommunications	79 674	146 934	61 158	71 958	73 809	244 845	50.3	288	710	40.6
14	42	62	RWE Group	Germany	Electricity, gas and water	78 726	127 179	23 950	51 205	55 379	97 277	53.1	441	1 142	38.6
15	14	59	Suez	France	Electricity, gas and water	74 353	85 786	38 918	55 795	105 483	160 716	73.3	181	648	27.9
16	67	79	E.ON	Germany	Electricity, gas and water	72 776	155 384	21 446	60 672	32 843	79 384	43.7	203	1 348	15.1
17	13	6	Hutchison Whampoa	Hong Kong	Diversified	67 938	84 160	15 224	22 307	165 683	180 000	74.1	34	174	19.5
18	59	93	Siemens AG	Germany	Electrical & electronic equipment	65 810	109 312	58 224	93 332	268 000	430 000	60.2	203	632	32.1
19	5	4	Nestlé SA	Switzerland	Food & beverages	65 106	76 365	58 586	69 574	240 638	247 000	81.5	440	687	64.0
20	82	28	Electricite De France	France	Electricity, gas and water	65 369	200 043	17 668	65 155	52 040	156 752	52.4	342	796	42.9
21	79	97	Honda Motor Co Ltd	Japan	Motor vehicles	63 626	89 483	61 501	79 351	76 182	149 867	58.5	30	44	68.2
22	52	73	Vivendi Universal	France	Diversified	57 383	94 434	13 511	28 647	29 577	37 306	30.6	247	633	39.0
23	46	53	ChevronTexaco	United States	Motor vehicles	51 185	91 208	60 534	150 865	37 000	98 000	34.5	121	200	60.5
24	18	33	BMW AG	Germany	Motor vehicles	50 726	91 926	40 198	55 000	76 848	105 972	64.5	114	151	75.5
25	35	40	Daimler Chrysler	United States/Germany	Motor vehicles	54 464	248 910	66 926	176 787	181 450	384 743	49.6	328	496	66.1

Source: UNCTAD/Erasmus University in UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, annex table A.I.17.

1. TNI, the Transnationality Index, is calculated as the average of the following three ratios: foreign assets to total assets, foreign sales to total sales and foreign employment to total employment. Ranking is based on 100 TNCs.
2. R, the "Internationalization index", is calculated as the number of foreign affiliates divided the number of all affiliates (note: Affiliates counted in this table refer to only majority-owned affiliates). Ranking is based on 100 TNCs.

Note: The list covers non-financial TNCs only. In some companies, foreign investors may hold a minority share of more than 10 per cent.

developing countries (table 5 for the top 25 of these TNCs). (Since 1995 the *World Investment Report* has published a list of the top 50 TNCs, but in this Report the list has been expanded to cover 100 TNCs.) In 2004, 40 of the firms were from Hong Kong (China) and Taiwan Province of China, 14 from Singapore and 10 from China. Altogether, 77 of the top 100 TNCs had their headquarters in Asia; the remaining were equally distributed between Africa and Latin America.

Liberalization continues, but some protectionist tendencies are also emerging.

In terms of regulatory trends relating to investment, the pattern observed in previous years has persisted: the bulk of regulatory changes have facilitated FDI. They have involved simplified procedures, enhanced incentives, reduced taxes and greater openness to foreign investors. However, there have also been notable moves in the opposite direction (table 6). In both the EU and the United States, growing concerns have arisen over proposed foreign acquisitions. In early 2006, the acquisition by DP World (United Arab Emirates) of P&O (United Kingdom), a shipping and port management firm, along with that firm's management of some ports in the United States, led to United States protests on the grounds of security. Similarly, in Europe concerns were voiced over a bid by Mittal Steel to acquire Arcelor, and broader European opposition to the EU's own directive relating to the liberalization of services. Some notable regulatory steps were also taken to protect economies from foreign competition or to increase State influence in certain industries. The restrictive moves were mainly related to FDI in strategic areas such as petroleum and infrastructure. For example, the Latin American oil and gas industry became the focus of attention, particularly following the Bolivian Government's decision to nationalize that industry in May 2006.

The web of international agreements of relevance to FDI continued to expand. By the end of 2005, the total number of bilateral investment treaties (BITs) had reached 2,495, and double taxation treaties (DTTs) 2,758, along with 232 other international agreements containing investment provisions. A number of developing countries are actively involved in such rule-making, including through more South-South cooperation. A notable trend involves the conclusion of further free trade agreements and various economic cooperation arrangements dealing with investment. The universe of international investment agreements (IIAs) is becoming increasingly complex. The recent IIAs tend to deal with a broader set of issues, including public concerns related, for example, to health, safety or the environment. While such quantitative and qualitative changes may contribute to creating a more enabling international framework for foreign investment, they also

Table 5. The top 25 non-financial TNCs from developing economies, ranked by foreign assets, 2004
(Millions of dollars, number of employees)

Ranking by:						Assets		Sales		Employment		TNI[a]	No. of affiliates		
Foreign assets	TNI[a]	100	Corporation	Home economy	Industry	Foreign	Total	Foreign	Total	Foreign	Total	(%)	Foreign	Total	DI[b]
1	28	6	Hutchison Whampoa Limited	Hong Kong, China	Diversified	51 828	88 183	11 329	20 282	103 000	180 000	49.5	84	342	25.0
2	64	100	Petronas - Petroliam Nasional Bhd.	Malaysia	Petroleum exp./ref./dist.	34 931	63 917	17 062	30 941	4 778	32 844	23.7	103	218	71.4
3	80	58	Singtel Ltd.	Singapore	Telecommunications	24 681	31 536	5 098	7 700	8 550	19 150	53.1	23	30	26.5
4	94	14	Samsung Electronics Co., Ltd.	Republic of Korea	Electronic & electronic equip.	13 699	30 636	1 594	74 164	37 239	47 699	69.2	70	97	68.0
5	60	11	CITIC Group	China	Diversified	14 353	84 148	4 738	9 340	52 412	90 000	21.4	18	79	23.7
6	36	3	Cemex S.A.	Mexico	Construction	13 223	17 188	5 312	8 559	16 800	26 504	64.2	42	98	43.9
7	17	10	LG Electronics Inc.	Republic of Korea	Electronic & electronic equip.	10 407	26 872	28 361	41 182	31 923	64 000	44.1	37	87	44.2
8	84	60	China Ocean Shipping (Group) Co.	China	Shipping	5 704	14 554	4 830	11 231	6 200	74 474	36.3	40	113	33.9
9	73	56	Petróleos De Venezuela	Venezuela	Petroleum exp/ref./dist.	4 598	70 200	22 341	49 249	5 121	51 309	38.1	30	50	38.2
10	27	1	Jardine Matheson Holdings Ltd.	Hong Kong, China	Diversified	7 741	15 609	3 439	9 389	57 840	170 000	61.7	83	93	89.3
11	59	37	Formosa Plastic Group	Taiwan Province of China	Industrial chemicals	6 109	36 223	5 340	9 736	30 000	64 000	35.5	15	18	17.6
12	91	70	Petróleo Brasileiro S.A. - Petrobras	Brazil	Petroleum exp./ref./dist.	6 201	63 430	11 082	30 109	5 780	53 951	28.9	19	123	15.3
13	98	31	Hyundai Motor Company	Republic of Korea	Motor vehicles	5 409	38 397	12 747	31 935	4 964	43 249	18.5	11	210	20.0
14	75	72	Flextronics International Ltd.	Singapore	Electronic & electronic equip.	5 402	11 730	9 187	16 980	84 408	92 000	69.1	113	114	47.7
15	45	82	Capitaland Limited	Singapore	Real Estate	5 271	15 233	1 936	2 329	5 [illegible]	17 [illegible]	29.1	4	17	11.8
16	63	88	Sasol Limited	South Africa	Industrial chemicals	4 903	12 498	5 341	11 993	5 [illegible]	31 [illegible]	34.9	11	19	21.2
17	65	79	Telmex	Mexico	Telecommunications	4 734	23 113	3 410	12 433	12 675	30 [illegible]	31.1	4	14	20.0
18	97	81	América Móvil	Mexico	Telecommunications	3 439	17 207	3 888	11 364	12 649	27 [illegible]	34.9	11	19	21.2
19	76	89	China State Construction Engineering Corp.	China	Construction	3 353	11 130	5 513	17 913	31 [illegible]	130 [illegible]	34.2	2	14	11.8
20	47	32	Hon Hai Precision Industries (Foxconn)	Taiwan Province of China	Electrical and electronic equip.	3 [illegible]	8 [illegible]	7 [illegible]	12 [illegible]	140 [illegible]	144 [illegible]	34.2	3	14	11.8
21	16	2	Shangri-La Asia Limited	Hong Kong, China	Hotels and motels	3 [illegible]	5 [illegible]	1 [illegible]	1 [illegible]	14 [illegible]	19 [illegible]	74.1	13	13	0.0
22	77	68	New World Development Co., Ltd.	Hong Kong, China	Diversified	3 [illegible]	15 [illegible]	1 [illegible]	2 [illegible]	12 [illegible]	47 [illegible]	29.3	4	11	13.3
23	21	7	Sappi Limited	South Africa	Paper	3 [illegible]	5 [illegible]	4 [illegible]	5 [illegible]	9 [illegible]	19 [illegible]	71.8	11	11	18.2
24	100	85	China National Petroleum Corp.	China	Petroleum exp./ref./dist.	3 [illegible]	110 [illegible]	5 [illegible]	58 [illegible]	17 [illegible]	1 167 [illegible]	9.4	5	143	1.4
25	40	67	Companhia Vale do Rio Doce	Brazil	Mining & quarrying	4 [illegible]	16 [illegible]	3 [illegible]	11 [illegible]	3 [illegible]	30 [illegible]	42.9	5	28	14.3

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, annex table A.I.12.

a TNI is calculated as the average of the following three ratios: foreign assets to total assets, foreign sales to total sales and foreign employment to total employment. Ranking is based on 100 TNCs.

b DI is calculated as the number of foreign affiliates divided by number of all affiliates (Note: Affiliates counted in this table refer to only majority-owned affiliates). Ranking is based on 100 TNCs.

Table 6. National regulatory changes, 1992-2005

Item	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Number of countries that introduced changes in their investment regimes	35	57	49	64	65	76	60	63	69	71	70	82	103	79
Number of regulatory changes	77	102	110	112	114	150	145	139	150	208	246	242	270	234
More favourable to FDI	—	80	106	106	98	134	136	131	147	193	234	218	234	164
Less favourable to FDI		1	2	6	16	16	9	8	3	15	12	24	36	70

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, table I.11.

mean that governments and firms have to deal with a rapidly evolving system of multilayered and multifaceted set of rules. Keeping this framework coherent and using it as an effective tool to further countries' development objectives remain key challenges.

Africa attracted much higher levels of FDI

In *Africa*, FDI inflows shot up from $17 billion in 2004 to an unprecedented $31 billion in 2005. Nonetheless, the region's share in global FDI continued to be low, at just over 3%. South Africa was the leading recipient, with about 21% ($6.4 billion) of the region's total inflows, mainly as a result of the acquisition of ABSA (South Africa) by Barclays Bank (United Kingdom). Egypt was the second largest recipient, followed by Nigeria. As in the past, with a few exceptions such as Sudan, most of the region's 34 least developed countries (LDCs) attracted very little FDI. The leading source countries remained the United States and the United Kingdom, along with France and Germany further behind. Most of the FDI was in the form of greenfield investments.

FDI flows to Africa in 2005 went mainly into natural resources, especially oil, although services (e.g. banking) also figured prominently. High commodity prices and strong demand for petroleum led to an increase in exploration activities in a number of African countries, including Algeria, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Mauritania, Nigeria and Sudan. TNCs from the United States and the EU continued to dominate the industry, but a number of developing-country TNCs, such as CNOOC from China, Petronas from Malaysia and ONGC Videsh from India, are increasingly expanding into Africa. Total FDI into six African oil-producing countries – Algeria, Chad, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Nigeria and Sudan – amounted to $15 billion, representing about 48% of inflows into the region in 2005.

Although outward FDI from Africa declined in 2005, several African TNCs deepened their internationalization, including through cross-border M&As. For example, Orascom acquired Wind Telecommunications of Italy through Weather Investments of Egypt. Most of the FDI from South Africa, the leading investor in Africa, went to developing countries in 2005.

Manufacturing attracted less FDI than natural resources and services. However, some sector-specific developments are worth highlighting. Automotive TNCs have set up export-oriented production facilities in South Africa, generating employment opportunities and export revenues. Conversely, fragmented markets, poor infrastructure and a lack of skilled workers, coupled with the ending in 2005 of the quotas established under the Multi-Fibre Arrangement (MFA), contributed to some divestment in the ready-made garments industry in countries like Lesotho. These divestments suggest that preferential market access (as provided by the United States' African Growth and Opportunities Act and the EU's Everything But Arms initiative) is not in itself sufficient to attract and retain manufacturing FDI in a globalizing environment. If African countries are to become internationally competitive, it is essential that they strengthen the necessary linkages between their export sectors and the rest of the economy by building and fostering domestic capabilities in areas such as physical infrastructure, production capacity and institutions supportive of private investment.

There have been positive developments in terms of regulatory regimes, and many African countries have signed new bilateral agreements related to investment and taxation. However, attracting quality FDI – the kind that would significantly increase employment, enhance skills and boost the competitiveness of local enterprises – remains a challenge. Africa's industrial progress requires competitive production capacity, in addition to better market access.

South, East and South-East Asia is still the main magnet for inflows into developing countries ...

FDI inflows into *South, East and South-East Asia* reached $165 billion in 2005, corresponding to 18% of world inflows. About two thirds went to two economies: China ($72 billion) and Hong Kong, China ($36 billion). The South-East Asian subregion received $37 billion, led by Singapore ($20 billion) and followed by Indonesia ($5 billion). Malaysia and Thailand ($4 billion each). Inflows to South Asia were much lower ($10 billion), though they grew significantly in several countries, with the highest level ever for India ($7 billion).

Over half of the inflows to the region came from developing home economies, mostly within the region. The figures for inward stock show

significant growth in the share of these sources over the past decade, from about 44% in 1995 to about 65% in 2004, with a corresponding decline in the share of developed-country sources.

Manufacturing FDI has been increasingly attracted to South, East and South-East Asia, although specific locations have changed as countries have moved up the value chain. The sector continues to attract large inflows, especially in the automotive, electronics, steel and petrochemical industries. Viet Nam has become a new location of choice, attracting new investment by companies such as Intel, which is investing $300 million in the first semiconductor assembly plant in that country. In China, investment in manufacturing is moving into more advanced technologies; for example, Airbus plans to set up an assembly operation for its A320 aircraft. There is, however, a shift towards services in the region, in particular banking, telecommunications and real estate.

Countries in South, East and South-East Asia continue to open up their economies to inward FDI. Significant steps in this direction were taken in 2005, particularly in services. For example, India is now allowing single-brand retail FDI as well as investment in construction, and China has lifted geographic restrictions on operations of foreign banks and travel agencies. A few measures were also introduced to address concerns over cross-border M&As in countries such as the Republic of Korea.

South, East and South-East Asia is also an emerging *source* of FDI (among developing countries), with outflows of $68 billion in 2005. Although this implies a drop of 11% from 2004, Chinese outflows increased and seem set to rise further in the next few years. Many of the region's countries have accumulated large foreign reserves, which may lead to more outward FDI. Among the main recent FDI deals involving companies from this region were Temasek's (Singapore) purchase of an 11.5% stake in Standard Chartered (United Kingdom) in 2006, and CNPC's (China) takeover of PetroKazakhstan in 2005. China and India have been energetically pursuing the acquisition of oil assets, and have even cooperated on some bids.

... while West Asia received an unprecedented level of inflows.

FDI inflows into the 14 economies of West Asia soared by 85%, the highest rate in the developing world in 2005, to reach a total increase of about $34 billion. High oil prices and consequently strong GDP growth were among the main factors that drove this increase. In addition, the regulatory regime was further liberalized, with an emphasis on privatization involving FDI notably in services, for instance, power and water in Bahrain, Jordan, Oman and the United Arab Emirates, transport in Jordan, and telecommunications in Jordan and Turkey.

The United Arab Emirates collectively received inflows of $12 billion, to become the largest recipient of FDI in West Asia in 2005. The next largest was Turkey, primarily on account of a few mega cross-border M&A sales in services. FDI inflows in West Asia have gone mainly into services, including real estate, tourism and financial services. Much of the FDI in real estate has been intraregional. There is also increasing FDI in manufacturing, especially in refineries and petrochemicals, in which Saudi Arabia alone received some $2 billion in 2005. There is little FDI in the primary sector, as most West Asian countries do not permit it in upstream activities in the energy industry.

West Asia is becoming a significant outward direct investor. Traditionally, most of the region's petrodollars have gone into bank deposits and portfolio purchases abroad, particularly in the United States. This is changing in both form and location. Unlike the previous periods of high oil revenues, the present phase is witnessing substantial outward FDI in services, in developing as well as developed countries. One motivation for this has been to forge stronger economic ties with the emerging Asian giants, China and India, but investment has also gone into Europe and Africa. Deals such as the above-mentioned acquisition of P&O by DP World, and the purchase of Celtel International (Netherlands) by Kuwait's Mobile Telecommunications illustrate this trend. Notable cases of South-South FDI include the purchase of a 25% share by Saudi Aramco in a refinery in Fujian, China, and a possible Saudi equity partnership with India's ONGC in a refinery in Andhra Pradesh, India.

Latin America and the Caribbean continued to receive substantial FDI.

Latin America and the Caribbean saw inflows of $104 billion, representing a small rise over 2004. Excluding the offshore financial centres, inflows increased by 12%, to reach $67 billion in 2005. Economic growth and high commodity prices were contributory factors. The region registered exceptional GDP growth rates in 2004–2005, surpassing those of the world average for the first time in 25 years. Strong demand for commodities contributed to a noticeable improvement in the regional trade balance. A significant proportion of the FDI inflows consisted of reinvested earnings, reflecting a marked increase in corporate profits. Trends varied by country: while inflows decreased in Brazil (– 17%), Chile (-7%) and Mexico (-3%), they rose significantly in Uruguay (81%), more than trebled in Colombia, almost doubled in Venezuela, and increased by 65% and 61% in Ecuador and Peru respectively.

Sectorally, the share of FDI in services in total FDI flows continued to decline, from 40% in 2004 to 35% in 2005 – a very low share compared

with other regions. Some TNCs continued to withdraw from the region, in part due to disputes with host governments in areas such as public utilities (e.g. the withdrawal from Argentina of Suez and EDF (both French firms)). Manufacturing accounted for just over 40% of inflows, including a relatively large number of M&As, such as SABMiller's takeover of breweries in Colombia and Peru, Grupo Techint's (Argentina) purchase of the steel-maker Hylsamex (Mexico), and Camargo Correa's (Brazil) acquisition of the cement-maker, Loma Negra (Argentina).

Even though a number of countries in the region introduced more restrictive policies, FDI in the primary sector grew significantly, attracting nearly 25% of inflows. Despite introducing a requirement on TNCs in the petroleum industry to operate under new contracts Venezuela received FDI inflows of $1 billion. In Colombia, petroleum-related FDI soared to $1.2 billion, a 134% rise, and in Ecuador it increased by 72% in the first half of 2005. Investment in the mining industry also expanded. In Colombia, for example, it grew by nearly 60% to $2 billion, in Chile to $1.3 billion, in Peru to $1 billion and in Argentina to $850 million.

Notwithstanding significant differences across countries, there appears to be a trend towards greater State intervention in the region, above all in the oil industry, and other natural resources. As a result of the large windfall earnings generated by the exploitation of natural resources and high commodity prices, several governments are introducing rules that are less favourable to FDI than those established in the 1990s, when commodity prices were at record lows. For instance, oil and gas resources have been nationalized in Bolivia; and the Government of Venezuela took control of 32 oilfields previously under private control, and created new State-owned companies in sectors such as sugar processing, retailing and communications. In addition, a broader shift in policy is under way in some countries, which aims at addressing income inequalities attributed to previous policy regimes.

Regional cooperation in the area of investment experienced several setbacks in 2005. Negotiations on establishing a 34-country Free Trade Agreement of the Americas stalled owing to opposition by five countries (including Argentina and Brazil); the free-trade talks between Ecuador and the United States were suspended following a takeover by the Government of Ecuador of Occident Petroleum's production infrastructure.

FDI outflows from Latin America and the Caribbean increased by 19% to $33 billion in 2005, with TNCs from the region acquiring assets mainly in telecommunications and heavy industries. As a significant share of these investments is within Latin America and the Caribbean, it also contributes to FDI inflows into the region.

FDI flows to South-East Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States remained relatively high...

FDI flows to South-East Europe and the CIS in 2005 remained at a relatively high level ($40 billion), increasing only slightly over the previous year. Inflows were fairly concentrated: three countries – the Russian Federation, Ukraine and Romania, in that order – accounted for close to three quarters of the total. FDI outflows from the region grew for a fourth consecutive year, reaching $15 billion, with the Russian Federation alone responsible for 87% of the total outflows. The countries of the region have different policy priorities related to inward and outward FDI, reflecting their varying economic structures and institutional environments. In natural-resource based economies, such as the Russian Federation, Azerbaijan and Kazakhstan, most of the policy issues concern management of the windfall earnings from high international oil prices, and the definition – or redefinition – of the role of the State.

... while there was an upturn in FDI to developed countries.

FDI inflows into developed countries rose by 37% to $542 billion, or 59% of the world total. Of this, $422 billion went to the 25-member EU. The United Kingdom – the largest single recipient of global FDI – received $165 billion. The main contributory factor was the merger of Shell Transport and Trading (United Kingdom) with Royal Dutch Petroleum (the Netherlands), a deal valued at $74 billion. Other major FDI recipients, that registered significant increases in their FDI inflows included France ($64 billion), the Netherlands ($44 billion) and Canada ($34 billion). The 10 new EU members together attracted $34 billion, a rise of 19% over 2004 and another new record high. Inflows into the United States amounted to $99 billion, a significant decline from 2004. Although well over 90% of all inflows into developed countries originated from other developed countries, several notable investments by TNCs from developing countries also took place, including Lenovo's (China) takeover of IBM's personal computer division and the above-mentioned purchase of Italian Wind Telecomunicazioni by Orascom (Egypt) through Weather Investments.

As a result of the Shell merger mentioned above, the Netherlands emerged as the leading source of FDI in 2005, followed by France ($116 billion) and the United Kingdom ($101 billion). Overall, however, outflows from developed countries declined somewhat, from $686 billion to $646 billion, mainly due to a fall in outflows from the United States. The American Jobs Creation Act of 2004 contributed to the decline, as it allowed repatriated earnings of United States foreign affiliates to be taxed at a lower rate than the normal one, leading to a one-off fall in reinvested earnings.

FDI into developed countries increased in all three sectors: primary, manufacturing and services. In keeping with the global trend, investment in natural resources increased significantly. In manufacturing, some of the new EU members (especially the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia) consolidated their positions as preferred locations for automotive production. Hyundai Motors, for instance, announced plans to set up new plants in the Czech Republic and in Slovakia. The new EU members are likely to maintain their comparative advantages (e.g. their average wage is 30% of the average wage in the older EU countries) for some time, and their automotive production is expected to double over the next five years, to 3.2 million vehicles.

In 2005, there were intense political discussions on various aspects of FDI, and especially cross-border M&As, in developed countries. On the one hand, some countries, particularly the 10 new EU member States, continue to privatize, reduce corporate income taxes and provide new incentives to attract more FDI. On the other hand, various concerns have been raised in a number of countries following the increased M&A activity. National security concerns, for example, led to a blocking of the purchase of Unocal (United States) by CNOOC (China); the Governments of Spain and France tried to prevent the buyouts of Endesa and Suez, respectively, by companies from other EU countries; and steps were taken to protect national champions. Japan has postponed the approval of cross-border M&As through share swaps and adopted some restrictions in the retail industry for instance.

Overall, FDI should continue to grow in the short term.

World FDI inflows are expected to increase further in 2006. This prospect is based on continued economic growth, increased corporate profits – with a consequent increase in stock prices that would boost the value of cross-border M&As – and policy liberalization. In the first half of 2006, cross-border M&As rose 39% compared to the same period in 2005. However, there are factors that may dampen further FDI growth. These include the continuing high oil prices, rising interest rates and increased inflationary pressures, which may restrain economic growth in most regions. Also, various economic imbalances in the global economy as well as geopolitical tensions in some parts of the world are adding to the uncertainty.

FDI FROM DEVELOPING AND TRANSITION ECONOMIES

Developing and transition economies have emerged as significant outward investors

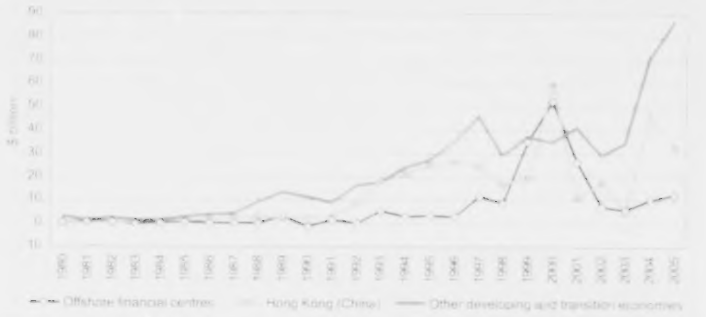
Although developed-country TNCs account for the bulk of global FDI, an examination of different data sources shows a growing and significant international presence of firms—both private and State-owned—from developing and transition economies. Their outward expansion through FDI provides development opportunities for the home economies concerned. However, it is eliciting mixed reactions from recipient countries in different parts of the world. Some welcome the increased FDI from these economies as a new source of capital and knowledge; for others it also represents new competition.

A small number of source economies are responsible for a large share of these FDI outflows, but companies from more and more countries see the need to explore investment opportunities abroad to defend or build a competitive position. FDI from developing and transition economies reached $133 billion in 2005, representing about 17% of world outward flows. Excluding FDI from offshore financial centres, the total outflow was $120 billion – the highest level ever recorded (figure 3). The value of the stock of FDI from developing and transition economies was estimated at $1.4 trillion in 2005, or 13% of the world total. As recently as 1990, only six developing and transition economies reported outward FDI stocks of more than $5 billion; by 2005, that threshold had been exceeded by 25 developing and transition economies.

Data on cross-border M&As, greenfield investments and expansion projects as well as statistics related to the number of parent companies based outside the developed world confirm the growing significance of TNCs from developing and transition economies. Between 1987 and 2005, their share of global cross-border M&As rose from 4% to 13% in value terms, and from 5% to 17% in terms of the number of deals concluded. Their share of all recorded greenfield and expansion projects exceeded 15% in 2005, and the total number of parent companies in Brazil, China, Hong Kong (China), India and the Republic of Korea has multiplied, from less than 3,000 to more than 13,000 over the past decade.

Sectorally, the bulk of FDI from developing and transition economies has been in tertiary activities, notably in business, financial and trade-related services. However, significant FDI has also been reported in

Figure 3. Outward FDI flows from developing and transition economies, 1980-2005



Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, figure III.2.

manufacturing (e.g. electronics) and, more recently, in the primary sector (oil exploration and mining). Data on cross-border M&As confirm the dominance of services, which constituted 63%, by value, of M&As undertaken by companies based in developing and transition economies in 2005. By industry, the highest shares that year were recorded for transport, storage and communications, mining, financial services, and food and beverages.

The geographical composition of FDI from developing and transition economies has changed over time, the most notable long-term development being the steady growth of developing Asia as a source of FDI. Its share in the total stock of FDI from developing and transition economies stood at 23% in 1980, rising to 46% by 1990 and to 62% in 2005. Conversely, the share of Latin America and the Caribbean in outward FDI fell from 67% in 1980 to 25% in 2005. The top five home economies accounted for two thirds of the stock of FDI from developing and transition economies, and the top 10 for 83%. In 2005, the largest outward FDI stock among developing and transition economies was in Hong Kong (China), the British Virgin Islands, the Russian Federation, Singapore and Taiwan Province of China (table 7).

A sizeable share of FDI originates from *offshore financial centres*. The British Virgin Islands is by far the largest such source, with an outward FDI stock in 2005 estimated at almost $123 billion. From a statistical point of view, trans-shipping FDI via offshore financial centres makes it difficult to estimate the real size of outward FDI from specific economies and by

Table 7. Top 15 developing and transition economies in terms of stocks of outward FDI, 2005
(Billions of dollars)

Rank	Economy	2005
1	Hong Kong, China	472
2	British Virgin Islands	173
3	Russian Federation	120
4	Singapore	111
5	Taiwan Province of China	92
6	Brazil	72
7	China	46
8	Malaysia	44
9	South Africa	38
10	Korea, Republic of	36
11	Cayman Islands	34
12	Mexico	28
13	Argentina	20
14	Chile	17
15	Indonesia	14
All developing and transition economies		1 400

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, table III.4.

specific companies. In some years, flows from these centres have been particularly large. However, since 2000, their outward FDI has declined considerably and now amounts to around one tenth of the total flows of FDI from developing and transition economies.

According to UNCTAD's *Outward FDI Performance Index*, which compares an economy's share of world outward FDI against its share of world GDP, FDI from Hong Kong (China) was 10 times larger than would be expected, given its share of world GDP. Other developing economies with comparatively high outflows included Bahrain, Malaysia, Panama, Singapore and Taiwan Province of China. Meanwhile, many countries with relatively large outward FDI in absolute terms, such as Brazil, China, India and Mexico, are at the opposite end of the spectrum, suggesting considerable potential for future expansion of FDI.

...generating considerable South-South investment flows.

The emergence of these new sources of FDI may be of particular relevance to low-income host countries. TNCs from developing and transition economies have become important investors in many LDCs. Developing countries with the highest dependence on FDI from developing and transition economies include China, Kyrgyzstan, Paraguay and Thailand, and LDCs such as Bangladesh, Ethiopia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and the United Republic of Tanzania. Indeed, FDI from developing countries accounts for well over 40% of the total inward FDI of a number of LDCs. For example, in Africa, South Africa is a particularly important source of FDI: it accounts for more than 50% of all FDI inflows into Botswana, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland. Moreover, the level of FDI from developing and transition economies to many LDCs may well be understated in official FDI data, as a significant proportion of such investment goes to their informal sector, which is not included in government statistics.

UNCTAD estimates show that South-South FDI has expanded particularly fast over the past 15 years. Total outflows from developing and transition economies (excluding offshore financial centres) increased from about $4 billion in 1985 to $61 billion in 2004, most of these were destined for other developing or transition economies. In fact, FDI among these economies increased from $2 billion in 1985 to $60 billion in 2004. As FDI of transition economies account for a very small proportion of these transactions, this estimate can also be used as a proxy for the size of South-South FDI.

The bulk of South-South FDI (excluding offshore financial centres) is intraregional in nature (figure 4). In fact, during the period 2002-2004, average annual intra-Asian flows amounted to an estimated $48 billion. The next largest stream of FDI within the group of developing countries was within Latin America, mainly driven by investors in Argentina, Brazil and Mexico. Intraregional flows within Africa were an estimated $2 billion, reflecting, in particular, South African FDI to the rest of the continent. Interregional South-South FDI has gone primarily from Asia to Africa, while the second largest has been from Latin America to Asia. Perhaps somewhat surprisingly, total flows from Asia to the Latin American region were modest during the period 2002-2004,[2] and those between Latin America and Africa were negligible.

Figure 4. Intra-regional and inter-regional FDI flows in developing countries, excluding offshore financial centres, average 2002-2004
(Millions of dollars)

Source: UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies*, figure III.8.

[2] In fact, most FDI flows between Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean involve inflows and outflows from offshore financial centres, which are not included in figure III.8.

New global and regional players are emerging, especially from Asia

The diversity of the home economies now emerging as significant sources of FDI precludes any far-reaching generalizations of the characteristics of TNCs from developing and transition economies, but it is possible to identify certain salient features. Although most of their TNCs are relatively small, a number of large ones with global ambitions have also appeared on the scene. They tend to be involved in particular industries, with notable variations between different home economies and regions. Compared with their developed-country counterparts, a relatively high degree of State ownership can be observed among the largest TNCs from developing and transition economies. However, these stylized observations should be interpreted with care, as there are important differences between regions and countries, as well as between individual companies.

Although more economies are emerging as FDI sources, there is still a relatively *high concentration* of countries from which the major TNCs originate: from South Africa in Africa, from Mexico and Brazil in Latin America, and from the Russian Federation in the CIS. There is less concentration in Asia, where the four newly industrializing economies, along with China, India, Malaysia and Thailand, are home countries for a growing number of companies that have expanded abroad. At the same time, a number of smaller TNCs from a wider range of developing countries are also increasing their foreign activities, mostly at the regional level. There are also an increasing number of large TNCs from developing and transition economies that feature in lists of the largest companies in the world. For example, around 1990, there were only 19 companies from developing and transition economies listed in the Fortune 500; by 2005, the number had risen to 47.

In terms of *industrial distribution* a few industries are better represented than others, but with important regional variations. Some TNCs from developing and transition economies have risen to leading global positions in industries such as automotives, chemicals, electronics, petroleum refining and steel, and in services such as banking, shipping, information technology (IT) services and construction. In some specific industries, such as container shipping and petroleum refining, developing-economy TNCs have a particularly strong presence.

In all developing regions and in the Russian Federation, major TNCs have emerged in the primary sector (oil, gas, mining) and resource-based manufacturing (metals, steel). Some of them are now competing head-on with their developed-country rivals. Examples include Sasol (South Africa) in Africa; CVRD (Brazil), ENAP (Chile), Petrobras (Brazil) and Petroleos de Venezuela (Venezuela) in Latin America; Baosteel, CNPC and CNOOC

(China), Petronas (Malaysia), Posco (Republic of Korea) and PTTEP (Thailand) in Asia, and Gazprom and Lukoil (Russian Federation).

Another cluster of activities involving many developing-economy TNCs are financial services, infrastructure services (electricity, telecommunications and transportation) and goods that are relatively difficult to export (cement, food and beverages). Because of their non-tradable nature, these economic activities typically require FDI if a company wishes to serve a foreign market. With a few exceptions (such as Cemex and the former South African companies, Old Mutual and SABMiller), however, most of the developing-country TNCs in these areas are mainly regional players, with limited (if any) activities in other parts of the world.

A third cluster of activities consists of those that are the most exposed to global competition, such as automotives, electronics (including semiconductors and telecommunications equipment), garments and IT services. Almost all the major TNCs from developing or transition economies in these industries are based in Asia. Electronics companies such as Acer (Taiwan Province of China), Huawei (China) and Samsung Electronics (Republic of Korea), the automobile firms, Hyundai Motor and Kia Motor (Republic of Korea), or smaller TNCs in the IT services industry, such as Infosys or Wipro Technologies (India), are already among the leaders in their respective industries.

In all regions studied, intraregional FDI plays a key role in TNC controlled international networks. This is especially true in Latin America and the CIS, but also to a large extent in Africa and Asia. The subregion of East and South-East Asia has the largest number of TNCs with global aspirations. Of the top 100 developing-country TNCs in 2004, as many as 77 were based in this subregion. Five of them are also among the top 100 global TNCs: Hutchison Whampoa (Hong Kong, China), Petronas (Malaysia), Singtel (Singapore), Samsung Electronics (Republic of Korea) and CITIC Group (China).

...as developing-country TNCs respond to the threats and opportunities arising from globalization with their own distinctive competitive advantages

The increase in the number and diversity of developing-country TNCs over the past decade is largely due to the continuing impact of globalization on developing countries and their economies. The dynamics are complex, but within them the combination of competition and opportunity — interwoven with liberalization policies across developing and developed regions — is particularly important. As developing economies become more open to international competition, their firms are increasingly forced to compete with

TNCs from other countries, both domestically and in foreign markets, and FDI can be an important component of their strategies. This competition in turn can impel them to improve their operations and it encourages the development of firm-specific competitive advantages, resulting in enhanced capabilities to compete in foreign markets.

Firms may respond directly to international competition or opportunities by utilizing their existing competitive advantages to establish affiliates abroad. This type of TNC strategy is referred to as "asset *exploiting*." Firms can also opt for an "asset *augmenting*" strategy in order to improve their competitiveness by exploiting their limited competitive advantages to acquire created assets such as technology, brands, distribution networks, R&D expertise and facilities, and managerial competences that may not be available in the home economy. They may even combine both strategies.

While developed-country TNCs are most likely to utilize firm-specific advantages based on ownership of assets, such as technologies, brands and other intellectual property, evidence shows that developing-country TNCs rely more on other firm-specific advantages, derived from production process capabilities, networks and relationships, and organizational structure. There are, however, significant variations by country, sector and industry. For example, TNCs in the secondary sector as a whole are most likely to possess and utilize advantages in both production process capabilities and ownership of assets (in that order), with less reliance on advantages grounded in networks and relationships, and organizations. By contrast, for TNCs in the primary sector, production process advantages are preponderant, while in the tertiary sector, networks and relationships represent the main advantage. There is some tendency to convergence with developed-country TNCs, mostly as economies become more developed (e.g. the advantages of TNCs from the Republic of Korea lie increasingly in their ownership of key technologies), but for the present a large diversity of advantages underlies the internationalization of developing-country TNCs.

Many of these TNCs also enjoy non-firm-specific competitive advantages, for example, those deriving from access to natural resources or reservoirs of knowledge and expertise in their home countries. These locational advantages might be available to all firms based in an economy, but a number of developing-country TNCs are adept at combining various sources of advantage (including firm-specific ones) into a strong competitive edge.

Many of the developing and transition economies that are home to large TNCs and are investing significant amounts of FDI overseas – such as Brazil, China, India, the Russian Federation, South Africa and Turkey

—are doing so much earlier (and to a greater degree) than would be expected on the basis of theory or past experience. This intensification of FDI by these countries can be traced to around the early 1990s. The likely reason for this shift lies in the impact of globalization on countries and companies, especially through increased international competition and opportunities.

Their outward expansion is driven by various factors ...

Four key types of push and pull factors, and two associated developments help explain the drive for internationalization by developing-country TNCs.

First, market-related factors appear to be strong forces that push developing-country TNCs out of their home countries or pull them into host countries. In the case of Indian TNCs, the need to pursue customers for niche products — for example, in IT services — and the lack of international linkages are key drivers of internationalization. Chinese TNCs, like their Latin American counterparts, are particularly concerned about bypassing trade barriers. Overdependence on the home market is also an issue for TNCs, and there are many examples of developing-country firms expanding into other countries in order to reduce this type of risk.

Secondly, rising costs of production in the home economy — especially labour costs — are a particular concern for TNCs from East and South-East Asian countries such as Malaysia, the Republic of Korea and Singapore, as well as Mauritius (which has labour-intensive, export-orientated industries, such as garments). Crises or constraints in the home economy, for example where they lead to inflationary pressures, were important drivers in countries such as Chile and Turkey during the 1990s. However, interestingly, costs are less of an issue for China and India — two growing sources of FDI from the developing world. Clearly, this is because both are very large countries with considerable reserves of labour, both skilled and unskilled.

Thirdly, competitive pressures on developing-country firms are pushing them to expand overseas. These pressures include competition from low-cost producers, particularly from efficient East and South-East Asian manufacturers. Indian TNCs, for the present, are relatively immune to this pressure, perhaps because of their higher specialization in services and the availability of abundant low-cost labour. For them, competition from foreign and domestic companies based in the home economy is a more important impetus to internationalize. Similarly, competition from foreign TNCs in China's domestic economy is widely regarded as a major push factor behind the rapid expansion of FDI by Chinese TNCs. Such competition can also sometimes result in pre-emptive internationalization, as when Embraer (Brazil)

and Techint (Argentina) invested abroad in the 1980s, ahead of liberalization in their respective home industries. Domestic and global competition is an important issue for developing-country TNCs, especially when these TNCs are increasingly parts of global production networks in industries such as automobiles, electronics and garments.

Fourthly, home and host government policies influence outward FDI decisions. Chinese TNCs regard their Government's policies as an important push factor in their internationalization. Indian firms, on the other hand, have been enticed by supportive host-government regulations and incentives, as well as favourable competition and inward FDI policies. South African TNCs, among others, mention transparent governance, investment in infrastructure, strong currencies, established property rights and minimal exchange-rate regulations as important pull factors. Most importantly, liberalization policies in host economies are creating many investment opportunities, for example through privatizations of State-owned assets and enterprises.

Apart from the above mentioned factors, there are two other major developments driving developing-country TNCs abroad. First, the rapid growth of many large developing countries – foremost among these being China and India – is causing them concern about running short of key resources and inputs for their economic expansion. This is reflected in strategic and political motives underlying FDI by some of their TNCs, especially in natural resources. Second, there has been an attitudinal or behavioural change among the TNCs discussed in this chapter. They increasingly realize that they are operating in a global economy, not a domestic one, which has forced them to adopt an international vision. These two developments, along with push and pull factors – especially the threat of global competition in the home economy and increased overseas opportunities arising from liberalization – adds empirical weight to the idea that there is a structural shift towards earlier and greater FDI by developing-country TNCs.

... which, together with TNCs' motives and competitive advantages, result in most of their FDI being located in developing countries.

In principle, four main motives influence investment decisions by TNCs: *market-seeking*, *efficiency-seeking*, *resource-seeking* (all of which are asset exploiting strategies) and *created-asset-seeking* (an asset-augmenting strategy).

Surveys undertaken by UNCTAD and partner organizations on outward investing firms from developing countries confirm that, of these motives, the most important one for developing-country TNCs is market-

seeking FDI, which primarily results in intraregional and intra-developing-country FDI. Within this, there are differences in patterns of FDI, depending on the activity of the TNC. For example, FDI in consumer goods and services tends to be regional and South-South orientated; that in electronic components is usually regionally focused (because of the location of companies to which they supply their output); in IT services it is often regional and orientated towards developed countries (where key customers are located); and FDI by oil and gas TNCs targets regional markets as well as some developed countries (which remain the largest markets for energy).

Efficiency-seeking FDI is the second most important motive, and is conducted primarily by TNCs from the relatively more advanced developing countries (hence higher labour costs); it tends to be concentrated in a few industries (such as electrical and electronics and garments and textiles). Most FDI based on this motive targets developing countries; that in the electrical/electronics industry is strongly regionally focused, while FDI in the garments industry is geographically more widely dispersed. Generally, resource-seeking and created-asset-seeking motives for FDI are relatively less important for developing-country TNCs. Not unexpectedly, most resource-seeking FDI is in developing countries and much created-asset-seeking FDI is in developed countries.

Apart from the above motives, a common one for TNCs from some countries is that of strategic objectives assigned to State-owned TNCs by their home governments. Some governments have encouraged TNCs to secure vital inputs, such as raw materials for the home economy. For example, both Chinese and Indian TNCs are investing in resource-rich countries, especially in oil and gas (to expand supplies, in contrast to targeting customers as does market-seeking FDI in this industry). In the case of Chinese TNCs, the quest for secure supplies of a wide range of raw materials is complemented by parallel and sustained Chinese diplomatic efforts in Africa, Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, and West Asia.

In terms of location of FDI, the net result of the relevant drivers, advantages and motives is that most investments are in other developing countries (e.g. because of similarities in consumer markets, technological prowess or institutions) or within their region (i.e. neighbouring countries with which they are familiar).

TNCs from developing countries and transition economies are here to stay. As they expand overseas, they gain knowledge, which potentially benefits them in two ways. First, they learn from experience and improve their ability to operate internationally. Second, they gain expertise and technology to enhance their firm-specific advantages, thereby improving their competitiveness and performance. This improved competitiveness has implications for home countries. By the same token, developing-country

TNCs can have an impact on host developing economies in a number of ways, ranging from financial resource flows and investment to technology and skills.

Increased competitiveness is one of the prime benefits that developing-country TNCs can derive from outward FDI ...

The most important potential gain for a firm from outward FDI is increased competitiveness, that is, the ability to survive and grow in an open economy, and attain its ultimate objectives of maximizing profits and retaining or increasing market share. Outward FDI can be a direct path to market expansion. In certain circumstances, it is the only path, for example when there are trade barriers that inhibit exports or when the TNC is in the business of providing a service that is non-tradable. Many developing-country TNCs have indeed expanded their markets through outward FDI, either through M&As or through greenfield investments. Outward FDI can also contribute to a company's competitiveness by increasing its efficiency. Rising domestic costs, especially labour costs, have led a number of East and South-East Asian TNCs to invest in less expensive locations, with significant efficiency gains.

In the above-mentioned surveys of outward investing firms from developing countries conducted by UNCTAD and partner organizations, market expansion in a broad sense (including market diversification) was the benefit most frequently mentioned, followed by efficiency gains. Case studies confirm that outward FDI has indeed enabled developing-country firms to enter new markets and expand their businesses. In a range of industries, such as white goods and personal computers, a number of Asian TNCs, such as Acer (Taiwan Province of China), Arcelik (Turkey), Haier (China) and Lenovo (China), have successfully expanded their markets through FDI, which has helped them grow into global players. Some companies from other developing regions have also ventured beyond their borders and become successful players in regional and even global markets. For instance, in 2005, Cemex (Mexico) became the third largest cement-making company in the world, with more than two thirds of its sales in developed countries.

Enhancing enterprise competitiveness through outward FDI is a complex undertaking. It goes beyond the immediate gains arising from market expansion and/or cost-cutting, and includes upgrading technology, building brands, learning new management skills, linking up with global value chains, and moving up these chains into more advanced activities. Some of these tasks can be protracted and, in straight financial terms, bring little or no gain in the short run. This is particularly likely when the outward FDI is

asset-augmenting rather than asset-exploiting, since in the former case the acquired assets must first be assimilated.

Firms that invest abroad tend to be more competitive than their domestically oriented peers. However, these firms are also subject to risks inherent in projects undertaken abroad. Some of these projects may fail for various reasons, with potential negative effects on the parent company. One of the reasons is the disadvantage of being foreign, another is the existence of cultural, social and institutional differences between home and host economies, and the third is the increasing need for coordinating activities and concomitant organizational and environmental complexities.

...while home countries can also benefit.

Outward FDI from developing countries can also contribute directly and indirectly, to a home economy as a whole. Arguably, the most important potential gain for home countries from outward FDI is the improved competitiveness and performance of the firms and industries involved. Such gains may translate into broader benefits and enhanced competitiveness for the home country at large, contributing to industrial transformation and upgrading of value-added activities, improved export performance, higher national income and better employment opportunities. Improved competitiveness of outward investing TNCs can be transmitted to other firms and economic agents in home countries through various channels, including via linkages with, and spillovers to, local firms, competitive effects on local business, and linkages and interactions with institutions such as universities and research centres. In sum, the more embedded the outward investing TNCs are, the greater will be the expected benefits for the home economy.

Evidence suggests that under appropriate home-country conditions, improved competitiveness of outward investing firms can indeed contribute towards enhancing industrial competitiveness and restructuring in the home economy as a whole. For instance, broader upgrading has occurred in whole industries in which firms have engaged in outward FDI. Examples are the IT industry in India, the consumer electronics industry in the Republic of Korea and China, and the computer and semiconductor industries in Taiwan Province of China.

At the same time, outward FDI may pose several risks for the home economy: it can lead to reduced domestic investment, hollowing out of parts of the economy and loss of jobs. As always, the beneficial impacts have to be weighed against possible damaging impacts. The benefits are usually reaped when certain preconditions are met, for example a reasonably competitive home market or the absorptive capacity to profit from advanced

technology. The net outcome of the different economic and non-economic impacts for a home economy depends on the underlying motives and strategies of firms for investing overseas and on the characteristics of the home economy itself.

While outward FDI entails the transfer of capital from home to host country, it can also generate inflows in the form of repatriated profits, royalties and licensing fees, and payments by the host country for increased exports from the home country (often in the form of intra-firm trades). In general, in the immediate aftermath of the outward investment, net financial flows tend to be negative but then gradually become positive. Outward FDI also seems to have a delayed but positive effect on domestic investment.

The trade impacts of outward FDI on the home economy depend significantly — as in the case of developed-country FDI — on the motivations and types of investment undertaken. If the TNCs seek natural resources, outward FDI could lead to an increase in imports of those resources and exports of the inputs required for extraction. Market-seeking FDI can be expected to boost exports of intermediate products and capital goods from the home economy to the host country. If the motivation is efficiency or cost reduction, outward FDI could enhance exports as well as imports, especially intra-firm trade, and their extent and pattern, depending on the geographic spread of the TNCs' integrated international production activities. Results of some studies on Asian developing home economies and data on trade by affiliates of developing-country TNCs in the United States and Japan suggest a positive relationship between home-country exports and outward FDI from developing countries.

Regarding employment, the impacts also vary according to the motivation of FDI. Efficiency-seeking FDI may raise many questions from a home-economy perspective. Even if it leads to a greater demand for higher skills at home, this may be of limited use to workers with low skills. Other kinds of FDI appear to have positive employment effects in the long run, depending considerably on the motivations of firms and their types of investments abroad. Evidence related to some Asian economies, such as Hong Kong (China) and Singapore, suggests that, under appropriate conditions, outward FDI can generate additional jobs in higher-skilled technical and managerial categories while reducing those in unskilled ones. On balance, in those economies, the job-creating effects of outward FDI exceeded its job-reducing effects. Much would depend, however, on the capacities of the human resources in the home country to adapt to changes in the structure of the home economy.

Developing host countries may also gain from the rise in South-South FDI

For developing host economies, FDI from other developing countries provides a broader range of potential sources of capital, technology and management skills to tap. For low-income developing countries, it can be of great importance. As indicated above, in a number of LDCs, it accounts for a large share of total FDI inflows. To the extent that firms from developing countries invest appreciable amounts in other developing countries, that investment provides an important additional channel for further South-South economic cooperation.

Because the motivations and competitive strengths of developing-country TNCs and the locational advantages sought by these firms diverge in several respects from those of TNCs from developed countries, their impact on host developing economies may carry certain advantages over that of FDI from developed countries. For example, the technology and business model of developing-country TNCs are generally somewhat closer to those used by firms in host developing countries, suggesting a greater likelihood of beneficial linkages and technology absorption. Developing-country TNCs also tend to use greenfield investments more than M&As as a mode of entry. This applies especially to investment in developing host countries. In this sense, their investments are more likely to have an immediate effect in improving production capacity in developing countries.

The trade impacts of FDI from developing countries also vary according to motives. Efficiency-seeking FDI is most likely to boost exports, which may include local value addition of various kinds. One recent prominent kind of efficiency-seeking FDI has been in the garments industry, which has had substantial export-boosting effects in LDCs in particular. However, local sourcing and backward linkages in this industry have been limited, with the result that the ending of MFA quotas has led to a reduction in such FDI, for instance in Lesotho. In market-seeking FDI, especially in manufacturing, the effect is mainly one of import substitution. Resource-seeking FDI, of course, is export-oriented almost by definition, and may allow the host country to diversify its markets.

A major advantage for host developing countries of FDI by developing-country TNCs, as compared to that from developed-country TNCs, is the greater employment-generating potential of the former. The main reason is that developing-country TNCs may be oriented more towards labour-intensive industries, and may be more inclined to use simpler and more labour-intensive technologies, especially in manufacturing. Empirical evidence on average employment per affiliate in host developing countries suggests developing-country TNCs hire more people than do developed-country TNCs. In the case of sub-Saharan Africa, for example, it has been

found that the labour intensity of developing-country TNCs tends to be higher than that of developed-country TNCs in the majority of industries covered. Foreign affiliates of developing-country TNCs, on average, created more jobs per million dollars of assets than did those of developed-country TNCs. The effects of FDI on wages are generally positive, as TNCs as a whole pay higher wages than local employers. Although data specific to developing-country TNCs are limited, indirect evidence suggests that, at least for skilled labour, they offer higher wages than host-country domestic firms.

But South-South FDI – like all FDI – also carries risks that can give rise to concerns. One is that foreign TNCs might dominate the local market. Another is that some host countries might feel threatened by the presence of too many firms from a single home country. For example, the dominance of South African TNCs has triggered some unease in neighbouring host countries. There is also the issue of undue political influence when an investing enterprise is State-owned, which is the case with many developing-country TNCs in natural resources. The political and social aspects of TNCs' activities may also give rise to controversy, partly due to the size of their operations. In developing host economies, such problems have sometimes been exacerbated by the absence of an adequate regulatory framework and disparity in the allocation of economic benefits from inward FDI. In economies where domestic industries are underdeveloped, governments may not have the capabilities to ensure that acceptable labour and environmental standards, for example, are adhered to when foreign firms introduce new production processes or working methods.

In sum, outward FDI from developing countries provides a potential avenue for gains from economic cooperation among developing countries. As investment by developing-country TNCs have certain inherent characteristics, including a greater orientation towards labour-intensive industries, it is of considerable relevance to low-income countries. At the same time, outward FDI from developing countries is a relatively new phenomenon. The limited evidence presented in this Report suggests that for home as well as host developing countries, the positive effects of FDI from developing countries may outweigh the negative ones; however further research is necessary to deepen the understanding of the impact of such FDI on developing economies.

The expansion of outward FDI from developing countries is paralleled by changing policies in home countries

The emergence of TNCs from some developing and transition economies as key regional or global players is paralleled by important changes in both developed and developing countries of policies governing

FDI and related matters. The ability of countries – be they sources or recipients of such investment – to benefit from such investment activity is influenced by active policies. By providing the appropriate legal and institutional environment, home country governments can create conditions that will induce their firms to invest overseas in ways that will produce gains for the home economy.

From a home country perspective, more and more developing and transition economies are dismantling previous barriers to outward FDI. While some form of capital control is often still in place to mitigate the risk of capital flight or financial instability, restrictions are mostly aimed at limiting other international capital flows than FDI. Only a handful of developing countries retain outright bans on outward FDI. Countries are increasingly recognizing the potential benefits from outward FDI. A number of governments, especially in developing Asia, are even actively encouraging their firms to invest abroad using a variety of supportive measures to that end. Such measures include information provision, match-making services, financial or fiscal incentives, as well as insurance coverage for overseas investment.

There is no one-size-fits-all policy that can be recommended to deal with outward FDI. Every home country has to adopt and implement policies that fit its specific situation. Whether a country will benefit by moving from "passive liberalization" to "active promotion" of outward FDI depends on many factors, including the capabilities of its enterprise sector, and the links of the investing companies with the rest of the economy. Certain local capabilities are needed to exploit successfully the improved access to foreign markets, resources and strategic assets that outward FDI can bring about. Moreover, a certain level of absorptive capacity in the domestic enterprise sector may also be required to generate broader benefits from outward FDI. In many low-income countries, it may therefore be appropriate to focus on creating a more attractive business environment and enhancing domestic firm capabilities.

Still, for those countries that decide to encourage their firms to invest abroad, it is advisable to situate policies dealing specifically with outward FDI within a broader policy framework aimed at promoting competitiveness. The importance of generating domestic capabilities to benefit from outward FDI makes it appropriate to connect outward FDI-specific policies to those applied in areas such as development of small and medium-sized enterprises, technology and innovation. Moreover, outward FDI is only one of several ways in which a country and its firms can connect with the global production system. Government efforts to promote outward FDI can therefore benefit from close coordination with those related to attracting inward FDI, promoting imports or exports, migration and technology flows.

The most elaborate use of measures to promote outward FDI is found in South, East and South-East Asia. In several countries of this region, governments discharge their promotional policies via trade promotion organizations, investment promotion agencies (IPAs), export credit agencies and/or EXIM banks. A range of policy instruments is applied in innovative ways, often targeting specific types of outward FDI. Some governments in Africa and Latin America have also publicly stressed the importance of outward FDI, but these statements have rarely been followed by concrete promotional measures.

Particular attention is warranted to the role of outward FDI in the context of "South-South" cooperation. Governments in Asia and Africa have outlined specific programmes to facilitate such investment. Some of these programmes are aimed at strengthening intra-regional development (as in the case of infrastructure-related FDI by South African State-owned enterprises), while others are inter-regional in scope. This is an area that needs to be further explored and supported through closer collaboration among developing-country institutions. An interesting recent UNCTAD initiative to this end is the establishment of the G-NEXID network, which will allow for the sharing of experiences among EXIM banks from developing countries.

...various policy responses in host countries...

There are also policy implications for host countries. A key question is what developing host countries can do to leverage fully the expansion of FDI from the South. In terms of enhancing the positive impact of such FDI, they need to consider the full range of policies that can influence the behaviour of foreign affiliates, and their interaction with the local business environment. This requires taking into account the specific characteristics of different industries and activities in designing a strategy to attract desired kinds of FDI. In addition, it is important to promote the amount and quality of linkages between foreign affiliates and domestic firms. Host-country governments can use various measures to encourage linkages between domestic suppliers and foreign affiliates and strengthen the likelihood of spillovers in the areas of information, technology and training. In terms of addressing potential concerns and negative effects associated with inward FDI, there is no principal difference between the policies to apply in the case of FDI from developed countries and in the case of FDI from developing and transition economies.

The scope for "South-south" FDI has led many developing host countries to adopt specific strategies to attract such investment. In a 2006 UNCTAD survey of IPAs, more than 90% of all African respondents stated that they currently targeted FDI from other developing countries, notably

from within their own region. Indeed, for African IPAs, South Africa tops the list of developing home countries targeted, while in Latin America and the Caribbean, Brazil is the most targeted country. Meanwhile, developed-country IPAs also court investors from developing and transition economies. A significant number of such agencies have already set up local offices for that purpose in places like Brazil, China, India, the Republic of Korea, Singapore and South Africa. This expanded diversity of potential sources of FDI may imply greater bargaining power of recipient countries to the extent that they are able to attract a greater number of investors to compete for existing investment opportunities.

Notwithstanding the interest in FDI from developing and transition economies, some stakeholders are less enthusiastic about some of the new investors. Several cross-border M&As by TNCs with links to their respective governments have generated national-security concerns, and others have spurred fears of job cuts. Countries in which State-owned TNCs embark on internationalization through FDI need to be aware of the potential sensitivities involved. In some host countries, State ownership is seen as an increased risk of a transaction being undertaken for other than purely economic motives. This is especially the case if the acquisitions relate to energy, infrastructure services or other industries with a "security dimension". Whether private or State-owned, investors from developing or transition economies that are anxious to tap the markets and resources of developed countries may also face growing pressure to address more fully issues related to corporate governance and transparency.

As far as the recipient countries are concerned, business leaders, trade unions as well as policymakers may have to get used to an increased frequency of transactions involving companies from developing and transition economies as acquirers of domestic firms. There may be important benefits to a host country from having more companies competing to acquire local assets. Countries need to be careful in their use of legislation aimed at protecting national security interests, keeping in mind the risk of fuelling possible retaliation and protectionism.

...and it has implications also for the management of CSR issues...

Issues of corporate social responsibility (CSR) may also become more important as developing-country firms expand abroad. Discussions related to CSR have traditionally revolved around developed-country TNCs and their behaviour abroad; more recently, the managements of TNCs from developing and transition economies are also being exposed to similar issues. While adherence to various internationally adopted CSR standards may entail costs for the companies concerned, it can also generate important

advantages – not only for the host country, but also for the investing firms and their home economies. A number of developing-country TNCs have already incorporated CSR policies into their business strategies, some of them even becoming leaders in this area. For example, more than half of the participating companies in the United Nations Global Compact are based in developing countries. Moreover, some developing countries are establishing a regulatory and cultural environment that supports CSR standards. These initiatives are sometimes driven by governments and at other times by business associations, non-governmental organizations or international organizations.

...and for international rule making.

Beyond the national level of policy-making, there is a marked increased in South-South investment cooperation through IIAs, in parallel to the growth of FDI from the South. The increase of FDI from some of these economies is also likely to generate growing demand from their business community for greater protection of their overseas investments. As a consequence, in addition to using IIAs as a means to promote inward FDI, some developing-country governments will increasingly consider using IIAs to protect and facilitate outward investments. This may influence the content of future treaties and result in an additional challenge for those developing country governments to balance their need for regulatory flexibility with the interests of their own TNCs investing abroad.

* * *

Policymakers in countries at all levels of development need to pay greater attention to the emergence of new sources of FDI with a view to maximizing the developmental impact of this recent phenomenon. There is scope for policymakers from developing and transition economies to share their experience in this area. South-South cooperation between host and home countries may enhance opportunities for cross-border investments and contribute to their mutual development. From a South-North perspective, there is a similar need for dialogue, increased awareness and understanding of the factors that drive FDI from the South and of their potential impacts. UNCTAD and other international organizations can play an important role in this context by providing analysis, technical assistance and, not least, forums for an exchange of views and experiences, in order to help countries realize the full benefit of the rise of FDI from developing and transition economies.

Supachai Panitchpakdi
Secretary-General of UNCTAD

Geneva, August 2006

ANNEX

World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: Implications for Development

Table of contents

PREFACE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
OVERVIEW

PART ONE
A YEAR OF SUSTAINED FDI GROWTH

CHAPTER I. GLOBAL TRENDS: RISING FDI INFLOWS
A. Overall trends and developments in FDI
1. Trends, patterns and characteristics
2. Some issues concerning FDI statistics – what is behind the numbers?
3. A new wave of cross-border M&As
4. FDI performance and potential
B. Policy developments
1. National policy changes
2. Recent developments in international investment arrangements
C. The largest TNCs
1. The world's 100 largest TNCs
2. The top 100 TNCs from developing economies
3. Transnationality of top TNCs
4. TNCs' most-favoured locations
5. The world's 50 largest financial TNCs
D. Prospects

CHAPTER II. REGIONAL TRENDS: FDI GROWS IN MOST REGIONS
Introduction
A. Developing countries
1. Africa
2. South, East and South-East Asia, and Oceania
3. West Asia
4. Latin America and the Caribbean
B. South-East Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States
1. Geographical trends
2. Sectoral trends: manufacturing dominates inflows, natural resources lead outflows
3. Policy developments
4. Prospects
C. Developed countries
1. Geographical trends
2. Sectoral trends: inflows up in all sectors
3. Policy developments
4. Prospects

PART TWO
FDI FROM DEVELOPING AND TRANSITION ECONOMIES:
IMPLICATIONS FOR DEVELOPMENT
INTRODUCTION
CHAPTER III. EMERGING SOURCES OF FDI
A. Developing and transition economies gain ground as home countries
1. FDI from developing and transition economies increases
2. Growing importance of Asia as a source of FDI

3. Services dominate
4. South-South FDI becomes significant
B. Global and regional players emerging from developing and transition economies
1. The rise of TNCs from developing and transition economies
2. TNCs from Africa
3. TNCs from Asia
4. TNCs from Latin America and the Caribbean
5. TNCs from South-East Europe and the CIS
C. Salient features of the emerging sources of FDI

CHAPTER IV. DRIVERS AND DETERMINANTS
A. Conceptual framework
1. The theory of transnational corporations and foreign direct investment
2. The investment development path and the emergence of TNCs from developing and transition economies
3. Application of the theory to TNCs from developing and transition economies
B. Competitive advantages, drivers and motives
1. Sources of competitive advantages
2. Drivers to internationalization
3. Motivations and strategies
C. Conclusions

CHAPTER V. IMPACT ON HOME AND HOST DEVELOPING ECONOMIES
A. Impact on home economies
1. Outward FDI and the competitiveness of developing-country TNCs
2. Outward FDI and the competitiveness and restructuring of home-country industries
3. Macroeconomic, trade and employment effects in the home economy
4. Concluding remarks
B. Impact on host economies
1. Assessing host-country impact
2. Impact on host developing economies
3. Concluding remarks
C. Conclusions

CHAPTER VI. NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL POLICIES
A. The role of home-country policies
1. Competitiveness policies and outward FDI
2. Policies specific to outward FDI
3. Mitigating potential risks associated with outward FDI
B. Implications for host-country policies
1. Host-country policies for maximizing the benefits from South-South FDI
2. More FDI sources for IPAs to target
3. Reactions to takeovers by TNCs from developing countries
C. International agreements and fdi from developing and transition economies
1. The growing role of IIAs
2. Regional economic integration agreements and South-South FDI
D. Corporate social responsibility and TNCs from developing and transition economies
1. Multilaterally agreed CSR principles
2. Benefits for TNCs from the South from addressing CSR issues
3. Encouraging good practices
E. Concluding remarks

CONCLUSIONS

REFERENCES

SELECTED UNCTAD PUBLICATIONS ON TNCS AND FDI

QUESTIONNAIRE

List of the *World Investment Reports*

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2005: Transnational Corporations and the Internationalization of R&D*** (New York and Geneva, 2004). 364 pages. Sales No. E.05.II.D.10.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2005: Transnational Corporations and the Internationalization of R&D. Overview***. 50 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/2004 (Overview). Available free to charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2004: The Shift Towards Services*** (New York and Geneva, 2004). 468 pages. Sales No. E.04.II.D.36.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2004: The Shift Towards Services. Overview***. 54 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/2004 (Overview). Available free to charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2003: FDI Policies for Development: National and International Perspectives*** (New York and Geneva, 2003). 303 pages. Sales No. E.03.II.D.8.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2003: FDI Policies for Development: National and International Perspectives. Overview***. 42 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/2003 (Overview). Available free to charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2002: Transnational Corporations and Export Competitiveness*** (New York and Geneva, 2002). 350 pages. Sales No. E.02.II.D.4.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2002: Transnational Corporations and Export Competitiveness. Overview***. 66 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/2002 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2001: Promoting Linkages*** (New York and Geneva, 2001). 354 pages. Sales No. E.01.II.D.12.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2001: Promoting Linkages. Overview***. 63 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/2001 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2000: Cross-border Mergers and Acquisitions and Development*** (New York and Geneva, 2000). 337 pages. Sales No. E.00.II.D.20.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 2000: Cross-border Mergers and Acquisitions and Development. Overview***. 65 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/2000 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1999: Foreign Direct Investment and the Challenge of Development*** (New York and Geneva, 1999). 541 pages. Sales No. E.99.II.D.3.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1999: Foreign Direct Investment and the Challenge of Development. Overview***, 75 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/1999 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1998: Trends and Determinants*** (New York and Geneva, 1998), 463 pages. Sales No. E.98.II.D.5.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1998: Trends and Determinants. Overview***, 72 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/WIR/1998 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1997: Transnational Corporations, Market Structure and Competition Policy*** (New York and Geneva, 1997), 416 pages. Sales No. E.97.II.D.10.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1997: Transnational Corporations, Market Structure and Competition Policy. Overview***, 76 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/ITE/IIT/5 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1996: Investment, Trade and International Policy Arrangements*** (New York and Geneva, 1996), 364 pages. Sales No. E.96.II.A.14.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1996: Investment, Trade and International Policy Arrangements. Overview***, 22 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/DTCI/32 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1995: Transnational Corporations and Competitiveness*** (New York and Geneva, 1995), 491 pages. Sales No. E.95.II.A.9.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1995: Transnational Corporations and Competitiveness. Overview***, 68 pages (A, C, E, F, R, S). Document symbol: UNCTAD/DTCI/26 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1994: Transnational Corporations, Employment and the Workplace*** (New York and Geneva, 1994), 482 pages. Sales No. E.94.II.A.14.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1994: Transnational Corporations, Employment and the Workplace. An Executive Summary***, 34 pages (C, E; also available in Japanese). Document symbol: UNCTAD/DTCI/10 (Overview). Available free of charge.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1993: Transnational Corporations and Integrated International Production*** (New York and Geneva, 1993), 290 pages. Sales No. E.93.II.A.14.

UNCTAD, ***World Investment Report 1993: Transnational Corporations and Integrated International Production. An Executive Summary***, 31 pages (C, E). Document symbol: ST/CTC/159 (Executive Summary). Available free of charge.

DESD/TCMD, ***World Investment Report 1992: Transnational Corporations as Engines of Growth*** (New York, 1992), 356 pages, Sales No. E.92.II.A.24.

DESD/TCMD, ***World Investment Report 1992: Transnational Corporations as Engines of Growth: An Executive Summary***, 26 pages, Document symbol ST/CTC/143 (Executive Summary). Available free of charge.

UNCTC, ***World Investment Report 1991: The Triad in Foreign Direct Investment*** (New York, 1991), 108 pages, Sales No. E.91.II.A.12, $25.

HOW TO OBTAIN THE PUBLICATIONS

The sales publications may be purchased from distributors of United Nations publications throughout the world. They may also be obtained by writing to:

United Nations Publications
Sales and Marketing Section
DC2-853
United Nations Secretariat
New York, N.Y. 10017
U.S.A.
Tel.: ++1 212 963 8302 or 1 800 253 9646
Fax: ++1 212 963 3489
E-mail: publications@un.org

or

United Nations Publications
Sales and Marketing Section
Rm. C-113-1
United Nations Office at Geneva
Palais des Nations
CH-1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland
Tel.: ++41 22 917 2612
Fax: ++41 22 917 0027
E-mail: unpubli@unog.ch

INTERNET: www.un.org/Pubs/sales.htm

For further information on the work on foreign direct investment and transnational corporations, please address inquiries to:

Khalil Hamdani
Officer-in-Charge
Division on Investment, Technology and Enterprise Development
United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
Palais des Nations, Room E.10052
CH-1211 Geneva 10 Switzerland
Telephone: ++41 22 907 4543
Fax: ++41 22 907 0498
E-mail: khalil.hamdani@unctad.org

INTERNET: www.unctad.org/en/subsites/dite

Questionnaire

World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: Implications for Development
Overview

In order to improve the quality and relevance of the work of the UNCTAD Division on Investment, Technology and Enterprise Development, it would be useful to receive the views of readers on this and other similar publications. It would therefore be greatly appreciated if you could complete the following questionnaire and return it to:

Readership Survey
UNCTAD, Division on Investment,
Technology and Enterprise Development
Palais des Nations
Room E-10054
CH-1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland
Or by Fax to: (+41 22) 907 04 98

This questionnaire is also available to be filled out on-line at: www.unctad.org/wir

1. Name **and professional** address of respondent (optional):

2. Which of the following best describes your area of work?

Government	☐	Public enterprise	☐
Private enterprise institution	☐	Academic or research	☐
International organization	☐	Media	☐
Not-for-profit organization	☐	Other (specify):	

3. In which country do you work?

4. What is your assessment of the contents of this publication?

Excellent	☐	Adequate	☐
Good	☐	Poor	☐

5. How useful is this publication to your work?

Very useful ☐ Of some use ☐ Irrelevant ☐

6. Please indicate the three things you liked best about this publication and how are they useful for your work

7. Please indicate the three things you liked least about this publication

8. On the average, how useful are these publications to you in your work?

Very useful ☐ Of some use ☐ Irrelevant ☐

9. Are you a regular recipient of Transnational Corporations (formerly The CTC Reporter), the Division's tri-annual refereed journal?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If not, please check here if you would like to receive a sample copy sent to the name and address you have given above. Other title you would like to receive instead (see list of publications):

10. How or where did you obtain this publication?

I bought it ☐ In a seminar/workshop ☐
I requested a courtesy copy ☐ Direct mailing ☐
Other ☐

11. Would you like to receive information on UNCTAD's work in the area of Investment, Technology and Enterprise Development through e-mail? If yes, please provide us with your e-mail address

Printed at United Nations, Geneva
GE.06-51312–August 2006–4,225

UNCTAD/WIR/2006(Overview)